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Coordinator: Dr. María Luz Celaya Villanueva (G3)

A PHONETIC COMPARISON BETWEEN INDIAN ENGLISH AND BRITISH ENGLISH

STUDENT'S NAME: Diljot Kaur

TUTOR'S NAME: Dr. Emilia Castaño

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patience throughout the writing of my End of Degree Paper.*

ABSTRACT

India was ruled by the British Empire for almost two hundred years and as a consequence, the Indians were much more exposed to English than to any other foreign language. English acquired the status of an associate language in India since it functions as a language that unites different states and cultures in that area. The fact that there are many regional varieties of Indian English, Standard Indian English Pronunciation (SIEP) took place which derived from Standard British English. Despite this, there still exist phonemic differences that reflect in the SIEP. From the phonological perspective, Standard British English and Indian English show some dissimilarities, so attention will be paid to the consonantal and vocalic sounds. To reflect these differences between both varieties when it comes to phonetics, an Indian movie containing English dialogues will be analysed.

KEYWORDS: British English, Indian English, phonology, standard, variety

RESUMEN

India estuvo gobernada por el Imperio Británico durante unos doscientos años y, como consecuencia, los indios estuvieron mucho más expuestos al inglés que a cualquier otro idioma extranjero. El inglés adquirió el estatus de una lengua asociada en la India, ya que es un idioma que une diferentes estados y culturas en esa área. El hecho de que haya muchas variedades regionales de inglés indio, se produjo la pronunciación estándar del inglés indio (SIEP) derivada del inglés británico estándar. A pesar de esto, todavía existen diferencias fonémicas que se reflejan en el SIEP. Desde la perspectiva fonológica, el inglés británico estándar y el inglés indio muestran algunas diferencias, por lo que se prestará atención a los sonidos consonánticos y vocálicos. Para reflejar estas diferencias entre ambas variedades cuando se trata de fonética, se analizará una película india que contiene diálogos en inglés.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Inglés británico, inglés indio, fonología, estándar, variedad

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. EMERGENCE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN INDIA	3
3. VARIETIES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE: THE CASE OF INDIAN ENGLISH.....	5
4. BRITISH AND INDIAN ENGLISH PHONOLOGY: A COMPARISON.....	7
4.1. Consonant sounds.....	7
4.1.1. Plosives.....	8
4.1.2. Fricatives	9
4.1.3. Affricates	9
4.1.4. Liquids.....	10
4.1.5. Semivowels.....	10
4.1.6. Nasals	10
4.2. Vowel sounds	11
4.2.1. Short vowels	11
4.2.2. Long vowels	11
4.2.3. Diphthongs	11
5. METHODOLOGY	12
6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	13
6.1. Consonant sounds.....	15
6.1.1. Plosives.....	15
6.1.2. Fricatives	15
6.1.3. Affricates	16
6.1.4. Liquids.....	16
6.1.5. Semivowels.....	16
6.1.6. Nasals	16
6.2. Vowel sounds	16
6.2.1. Short vowels	16
6.2.2. Long vowels	17
6.2.3. Diphthongs	17
7. CONCLUSION	18
REFERENCES.....	19
APPENDIX I: PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION	20

1. INTRODUCTION

English Phonetics and Phonology I and II have been some of the subjects I have really enjoyed during my degree in English Studies. When I had to choose a topic for the End of Degree Paper (EDP), I had no doubt that it had to be something related to phonetics. Being an Indian speaker of English, I have always wondered why Indian English sounds so differently from Standard British English. Consequently, my interest in phonetics and my personal experiences as an Indian English speaker were my main motivations to compare British English and Indian English in my EDP.

India is the world's second most populated country. Nowadays, as recognized in the 8th Schedule of the Constitution, 23¹ major languages are spoken in India, being Hindi and English at the top of the list. The percentage of people who can speak English in India is enormous because of the historical background of the country. As India is a land of diversity and every Indian state has its own language, English is used as a unitary standard language so that each Indian citizen can communicate with each other. Moreover, English has become a requisite for multiple jobs, which implies that English has to be taught thoroughly in schools and universities. For Indians, a good command of English symbolizes a good education and higher intelligence, all in all, a bright future. This can be a remnant of colonisation, as Ahmad (2000, p. 75) states: "only the literary document produced in English is a national document; all else is regional, hence minor and forgettable, so that English emerges in this imagination not as one of [the nation's] languages but as the language of national integration and bourgeois civility."

The aim of this paper is to compare two different national varieties of English: British English and Indian English with a focus on their phonological similarities and differences. In order to accomplish this objective, a sample of authentic speech extracted from an Indian movie with English dialogues will be analysed. To start with, the present EDP will describe the significant role that English plays in the lives of Indians, the historical background of India and how the English language established itself in the country. Furthermore, the role of standardization and the process that a dialect undergoes to occupy the status of Standard

¹22 languages recognized in the 8th Schedule of the Constitution and an additional official language which is English.

language will be briefly described. In addition, Sailaja's analysis of the characteristics of SIEP in *Dialects of English* (2009) will be taken as a starting point to compare the phonological differences that exist between British English and Indian English. Then, an Indian movie with dialogues in English - *My Name Is Khan* (Johar, 2010) - will be analysed as an example to collect data and exemplify the theoretical differences reported in the literature review. English dialogues will be discussed from a phonetic point of view and results will be discussed from this analysis. The paper ends with a conclusion section which summarizes the main findings of this piece of research.

2. EMERGENCE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN INDIA

English has become a global language since around 1.5 billion people worldwide speak it as a second language and it is used for international communication. It is widely spoken in many areas of India and works as a “lingua franca” to cover social and cultural gaps, thus it has been retained as an Associate National Language in India where Hindi is considered as an official language.

English was first introduced in India in the early 16th century with the arrival of British settlers. The East India Company, founded to import materials like spices, cotton, and silk, was established during Queen Elizabeth I period with the purpose of trading. The Company grew immensely in the eighteenth and early nineteenth century on the territory of India. At that time it was not only a trading company, it also had military power and started collecting taxes from the areas it was ruling over. The power of the East India Company was perfectly evidenced by its absolute rule over the province of Bengal, which was under British rule. In this context, English began to spread in different cities of India through its teaching. The western culture started to develop in India as several Christian schools were founded by English missionaries. Moreover, British factories were placed in different Indian coastal cities such as Bombay, Madras, Surat, and Calcutta, which also contributed to the expansion of English.

Soon Persian was replaced with English as the official language of the Company. Thomas Babington Macaulay’s “Minute on Indian Education” played an important role in the development of English education in India. It was a document that promoted the English language, culture, and literature in India. In the document, Macaulay supported the use of English as the medium of instruction in all schools and the training of English-speaking Indians as teachers:

We have to educate a people who cannot at present be educated by means of their mother-tongue. We must teach them some foreign language. The claims of our own language it is hardly necessary to recapitulate. It stands pre-eminent even among the languages of the West . . . We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern, a class of persons Indian in

blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intellect. (Sharp, 1920, p. 110)

Moreover, as the Indian educational system started to grow, some English teaching Universities were built in different parts of the country. After the Independence of India in 1947, Hindi was declared the only national language. This led to many protests from non-Hindi speaking states. In response to these protests, English was retained as an official language of the country.

Nowadays, English is widely used in India on a daily basis. It has become an essential communication language across the country. In almost every field it is required and all professional courses are taught in English. Even “the Constitution (of India) was written originally in English and an authorised Hindi translation is now available. Moreover, the language of the High Courts and the Supreme Court is English.” (Sailaja, 2009, p. 5).

3. VARIETIES OF ENGLISH: THE CASE OF INDIAN ENGLISH

There are several variants of English existing inside and outside the United Kingdom such as British English, Scottish English, Irish English, American English, Canadian English, New Zealand English, South African English and Indian English. This section is going to focus on Indian English as a variety of English spoken outside the United Kingdom. It is important not to confuse it with an accent since an accent is a part of dialect that deals with pronunciation like Cockney English. Indian English dialect shows its own grammatical and lexical idiosyncrasies and its use is particular to a certain place. In order to describe the particularities of Indian English, British English, the variety of English that arrived in India after its colonization must be taken as a point of reference. Hence, this section provides a description of the main characteristics of Standard British English and set the foundations for comparison of British and Indian Englishes.

The origin of Standard British English is traced back to the Early Modern English period. Its standardization responded to a general need: whenever there are several regional dialects in a country, standardization is applied to reduce this large amount of variability. That is, a variety is selected and elevated to the status of a standard language. The standardization was decided by the high-status speakers, having received a good education. The Cambridge Dictionary defines a standard language as “a variety of language that is used by governments, in the media, in schools and for international communication.” Standard English is the variety most widely accepted wherever English is spoken or understood. Trudgill & Hannah (2013, p. 1) state: “[Standard English] has been subjected to a process through which it has been selected, codified and stabilized, in a way that other varieties have not.” Standard English was originally a dialect from East Midland. It was selected to undergo standardization because this dialect was spoken by a “group of people who were of mixed geographical origins and who were unusually mobile and well travelled” (Trudgill & Hannah, 2013, p. 1). In other words, it was a mixed dialect that was spoken and understood by a large number of people, regardless of differences in dialect. Some writers such as Swift and statesmen like Lord Chesterfield supported the idea that the English language needed to be fixed and written and spoken correctly, from a grammatical point of view (Crowley, 2003, p. 79). Therefore, it needed to be codified. The process of codification was handled by scholars since they were the ones who decided which were the correct and incorrect forms of the language. Moreover,

Samuel Johnson's dictionary (1755), *A Dictionary of the English Language*, also contributed to purify and reform the spelling. The standard variety of British English received the name of Received Pronunciation. Mott (2011, p. 108) affirms that "English has no language academy to make decisions about the acceptability of words, grammatical constructions and pronunciations." There is no other option than to "rely on the judgment of leading academics and prestigious publishers, like Oxford University Press and Cambridge University Press." (Mott, 2011, p. 108).

Furthermore, there are also several varieties of English in South Asia known as South Asian English (SAE). Wells (1982, p. 624) highlights that the expression 'Indian English' is used to refer to the variety of English spoken in India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Nepal. Some varieties of English spoken in India such as Butler English or Babu English were considered as bad English which forced the process of standardization. Teachers of Indian English pronunciation rely on Received Pronunciation and try to teach in their classrooms the standard British accent. However, this has never been achieved. It is difficult to say that there is one standard Indian accent because of regional variations and because speakers' mother tongues influence their English pronunciation. Hence, Standard Indian English Pronunciation (SIEP) is an approximation of RP (Sailaja, 2009, p. 17). At the moment, for most of the Indians, English is their second language and their first language is one of the official languages of the country.

4. BRITISH AND INDIAN ENGLISH PHONOLOGY: A COMPARISON

Indian English and British English differ from one another in several aspects, like morphosyntax, lexis and discourse, but this study will mainly focus on phonetics and phonological differences.

4.1. Consonant sounds

Despite the English alphabet only has 26 letters, English has 44 sounds, known as phonemes. From these 44 distinctive sounds, 24 are classified as consonant sounds and the rest as vowel sounds.

Consonants are classified taking into account the place of articulation, the manner of articulation and whether they are voiced or unvoiced.

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d				k g	ʔ
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z		ʃ ʒ			h
Affricate						tʃ dʒ			
Nasal	m			n				ŋ	
Lateral				l					
Approximant	(w)				r		j	W	

British English consonant sound system.

	Labial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	p (p ^h) b		(t) d t ^h			ʈ (ʈ ^h) ɖ		k (k ^h) g	ʔ
Fricative		f		s z	ʃ				h
Affricate					tʃ (tʃ ^h) dʒ				
Nasal	m			n				ŋ	
Lateral Approximant				l		(ɭ)			
Approximant	ʋ/w			r			j		

Indian English consonant sound system (CIEFL, 1972)

4.1.1. Plosives

English alveolar plosive sounds /t/ and /d/ become retroflex, /ʈ/ and /ɖ/, in Indian English. Retroflex sounds are made by curling back the tongue tip and touching the alveolar ridge. For instance: *London* /lɒndʒən/; *tomorrow* /tə'mɒrəʊ/.

Moreover, aspiration, a delay in the beginning of vocal cords vibration, is a common trait in the articulation of the English voiceless oral stops /p, t, k/, which, unless they are preceded by /s/, are aspirated before vowels at the beginning of a stressed syllable and word-initially in unstressed syllables. For example *potato* /p^hə'tetəʊ/. However, in Indian languages, aspiration occurs as a result of “spelling pronunciation” (Sailaja, 2009). The English words that have an initial /t/ are produced as /t^h/, like *Thomas* /'t^hɒməs/.

4.1.2. Fricatives

Indian English lacks the voiceless dental fricative /θ/ and the voiced dental fricative /ð/. Indian dental plosives /t/ or /tʰ/, and /d/ are used instead. However, the sound /θ/ is sometimes pronounced in SIEP, but the voiced sound is always missing (Sailaja, 2009). Therefore, the consonant /θ/ is replaced by an unaspirated voiceless dental stop /t/ and the consonant /ð/ by the unaspirated voiced dental plosive /d/. For instance, *thin* /tʰɪn/. This is also the case of “spelling pronunciation”, which means that spelling influences pronunciation.

Furthermore, as stated by Sailaja (2009), some Gujarati and Marathi speakers articulate the labiodental sound /f/ as a bilabial plosive /pʰ/. The voiced labiodental fricative /v/ also undergoes some changes in non-standard varieties since Indian speakers of English use it as a frictionless /v/ as in *vine* /vʌɪn/.

The voiceless and voiced alveolar fricatives, /s/ and /z/ occur in Indian English the same way as in RP. However, there are some regional variations. For instance, according to Sailaja (2009), Bengali and some Bihari speakers of Hindi find it difficult to distinguish /s/ and /ʃ/. For example they pronounce /si:p/ instead of /ʃɪp/ for *ship*. Moreover, /z/ is often produced as [dʒ] as in *zebra* /'dʒi:brə/.

As explained previously, in some areas, Indian speakers tend to use /s/ instead of the palato-alveolar unvoiced /ʃ/ which creates confusion between some pairs of words, like *she* and *see*. The voiced fricative /ʒ/ is realized as /dʒ/ or /z/ in Indian English as in *treasure* /'trezə:r/.

The glottal fricative /h/ remains unchanged in SIEP and RP.

4.1.3. Affricates

The voiceless postalveolar affricate /tʃ/ and voiced affricate /dʒ/ do not undergo any changes in SIEP, therefore they remain similar to RP. For example *match* /mætʃ/ and *Jack* /dʒæk/.

4.1.4. Liquids

Both RP and SIEP are non-rhotic but “most non-standard varieties of IE are rhotic” (Sailaja, 2009, p. 20). The /r/ remains silent when it takes place in final position like *far* /fa:/ and in words where it appears before another consonant as in *port* /pɔ:t/. Therefore, the sound /r/ is only pronounced in pre-vocalic position.

What is more, the feature of linking /r/ is maintained in SIEP. That is, /r/ is pronounced at the end of the word when followed by a word that begins with a vowel. For instance: *the car is mine* /ðə ka:r ɪz maɪn/. Intrusive /r/, however is absent in Indian English. According to Bansal & Harrison (1994), in IE the /r/ sound may be realized as a frictionless alveolar approximant or as an alveolar tap.

The consonant /l/, which has two variants in RP: a clear /l/ and a dark /ɫ/ which is used in postvocalic position, also exhibits changes in Indian English. In Indian English, dark /ɫ/ is absent, thus, only clear /l/ is used. However, in non-standard varieties, the sound /l/ is replaced with the voiced retroflex lateral approximant /ɭ/ by some English speakers of India. For example *play*.

4.1.5. Semivowels

The voiced labiodental fricative sound /v/ is produced using the lower lip and top teeth, while voiced labiovelar approximant /w/ is produced using both lips. Indian speakers of English do not distinguish these sounds. /w/ is usually replaced by /v/ since it does not exist in most of the Indian languages. Hence, many Indian speakers use the frictionless labiodental approximant /ʋ/ for both /v/ and /w/. For instance, the word *what* is pronounced as /vʋt/.

4.1.6. Nasals

The nasal sounds /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/ remain unchanged in RP and SIEP.

4.2. Vowel sounds

The phonological system of RP consists of twelve vowels and eight diphthongs, whereas, Indian English has eleven vowels and six diphthongs.

4.2.1. Short vowels

RP and SIEP share the same short vowels, but there is an exception. The two central vowels /ə/ and /ʌ/ are sometimes neutralised in SIEP or may be used as free variants (Sailaja, 2009), and “grouped under one phoneme symbolised as /ə/” (Bansal & Harrison, 1994, p. 28). So, Indian English has only one phoneme /ə/ which corresponds to RP /ʌ/, /ə/ and also /ɜ:/ as in *blood* /bləd/ instead of /blʌd/.

4.2.2. Long vowels

The main distinction between RP and SIEP long vowels is that the former has five long vowels, while the latter has a total of seven. Another important difference is that Indian English has long vowels /e:/ and /o:/ which correspond to RP diphthongs /eɪ/ and /əʊ/. For instance, the sound /e:/ is articulated in words such as *pay* or *stay*. And the sound /o:/ is present in words like *hero* or *go*.

Furthermore, in Indian English there is no distinction found between /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/. Hence, /ɒ:/ replaces the phoneme /ɔ:/ (Bansal & Harrison, 1994). For example, the word *ball*, which is pronounced /bɔ:l/ in British English appears as /bɒ:l/ in Indian English. As Sailaja (2009) affirms, in some Indian rhotic dialects /ɜ:/ is pronounced as /ar/ or /ər/, like in the word *bird*.

4.2.3. Diphthongs

A diphthong is a long vowel with a single, noticeable change of quality during one syllable. While RP has eight diphthongs /eɪ, əʊ, aɪ, aʊ, ɔɪ, ɪə, eə, ʊə/, SIEP has only six /aɪ, ɒɪ, aʊ, ɪə, ʊə, eə/.

The distinction lies only in non-standard Indian varieties, as they often replace centring diphthongs /ɪə, ʊə, eə/ with long monophthongs /i:/, /u:/ and /e:/ as *real* /ri:l/ instead of /rɪəl/, *poor* /pu:r/ instead of /pʊə/ and *pair* /pe:r/ instead of /peə/.

5. METHODOLOGY

Concerning methodology, the first step was to select an Indian movie that contains a large number of English dialogues in order to compare it with British English pronunciation. The bilingual film, *My Name is Khan*, was chosen in which the characters often use Indian English and Hindi.

The next step was the phonetic analysis of English utterances produced by the Indian characters in the movie. Then, in order to conduct a systematic analysis of the similarities and differences between RP and the character's production, I transcribed in RP the sentences that I have selected using the Oxford and Macmillan dictionaries as a reference. After listening to the dialogues as many times as needed, I proceeded to transcribe and compare them with British English transcription. Taking into account the phonological aspects of SIEP described in the literature review, the final step was to classify the data to offer an analysis that reflected consonant and vowels differences between RP and the authentic speech sample that had been analysed.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This second part consists of analysing a Hindi movie, *My Name is Khan* (Johar, 2010), to describe the characteristics that distinguish Indian English from Standard British English. Most of the sentences described below are produced by the main protagonist whose name is Rizvan. His mother tongue is Hindi and English is his second language. In addition, a non-standard variety of Indian English was also spoken by a Gujarati speaker. The influence of his mother tongue on English was clearly visible. The following table shows the most relevant findings of my analysis. A complete transcription of the sentences where the words below were uttered is offered in Appendix I.

	SOUNDS	VARIANTS IN INDIAN ENGLISH	EXAMPLE	TIME
Plosives	/p/, /t/, and /k/	Unaspirated /p, t, k/	/teɪk/	6:42
			/pɪnk/ /ki:p/	34:55 55.:24
	/t/ and /d/	/t/ tends to / t̪/	/t̪ʊ/ /'kvaɪt̪/	6:48 55:24
		/d/ tends to /d̪/	/gʊd̪/	25:23
	The ending -ed	The ending -ed as -d instead of -t	/dɪ'vɔ:rsd/	26:55
Fricatives	/θ/ and /ð/	/θ/ tends to /t̪/	/'sʌmt̪ɪŋ/ /'nʌt̪ɪŋ/ /t̪ɪŋ/	6:58 26:55 1:10:45
		/ð/ tends to /d̪/	/d̪ə/ /d̪ɪs/ /d̪æt/	6:48 25:43 27:16
	/f/	/f/ tends to /pʰ/	/pʰu:l/	52:38

	/s/ and /z/	/z/ tends to /s/	/ˈprezɪdənt/ /ɪs/ /kliːns/ /seːs/ / ðeːs/ /pliːs/	6:48 25:43 26:28 27:16 27:16 32:20
Affricates	/dʒ/ and /tʃ/	/tʃ/ tends to /f/	/ˈkweʃən/	2:06:56
Liquids	/r/	/r/ realized in every environment	/ˈhɜːrbəl/ /kɑːr/ / beːr/ /ˈbrəðərz/	32:20 44:17 47:29 1:53:41
		Tap /ɾ/	/ əˈmrɛɪkə/	25:43
	/l/	Clear /l/	/ kleː/ /ˌlao/	26:28 32:20
Semivowels	/v/ and /w/	/v/ and /w/ tend to /v/	/vɔːtə/ /ˈkvaɪt/ /ˈtʃenʃi/ / vɒnt/	26:28 55:24 2:13:43 2:13:46
Nasals	/ŋ/	/ŋg/ instead of /ŋ/	/mˈoːnɪŋg/	25:23
Short vowels	/ʌ/ and /ə/	/ʌ/ and /ə/ as free variants	/ ˌlao/ /bʌt/ /ˈbrəðərz/ / kʌntri/	32:20 1:41:56 1:53:41 2:06:56
Long	/eɪ/ and /əʊ/	/eɪ/ tends to /eː/	/steːts/ /neːm/ /skeːri/ /meːks/	6:48 7:52 22:55 26:28
			/goːɪŋ/	6:48

vowels		/əʊ/ tends to /o:/	/dɔ:nt/ /'o:nli/	41:53 2:13:43
	/ɒ/	/ɒ/ tends to /ɔ:/	/'ʃɒ:kɪŋ/ /rɒ:ŋ/ /'wɒ:ntɪŋ/	34:55 2:06:56 2:06:56
Diphthongs	/ɪə/, /ʊə/ and /eə/	/ɪə/ tends to /i:/	/'ri:li/	35:00
		/ʊə/ tends to /u:/	/'de:ri/	1:44:18
		/eə/ tends to /e:/	/be:r/	47:29

6.1. Consonant sounds

6.1.1. Plosives

The data illustrates that the plosive sounds /p, t, k/ are unaspirated in word-initial and in syllable initial positions in Indian English as in the words *pink* /pɪnk/ (Appendix I: sentence 2), *take* /teɪk/ (1) and *keep* /ki:p/ (3). However, in RP these plosives tend to be aspirated. Moreover, the Indian speaker articulates /t/ and /d/ as retroflexed /ɖ/ and /ɗ/. For example, *good* /gʊɖ/ (5), *to* /tʊ/ (4). In British English, the word ending <-ed> is pronounced as /t/ after unvoiced consonants, but the speaker produces it with a voiced /d/ like in *divorced* /dɪ'vɔ:rsd/ (8).

6.1.2. Fricatives

The speaker used a voiceless dental plosive /t̪/ to replace the voiceless dental fricative /θ/ and a voiced dental plosive /ɖ/ in the place of the voiced dental fricative /ð/, which can be seen in the words *something* /'sʌmt̪ɪŋ/ (7), *thing* /t̪ɪŋ/ (9) and *this* /ɖɪs/ (10). As stated previously, in some non-standard varieties speakers articulate the labiodental fricative /f/ as /pʰ/. In the film, a Gujarati speaker shows evidence of this as he pronounces *full* as /pʰu:l/ (11). Furthermore, in RP alveolar /s/ can occur as /s/ or as /z/ in certain environments. In verbal and noun endings, /s/ becomes voiced and appears as /z/ after vowels and voiced consonants. Nevertheless, in the movie, speakers do not follow such rules in words like *cleans* /kli:ns/ (12), *days* /de:s/ (13), *is* /ɪs/ (10) and *please* /pli:s/ (14). There is no evidence in the film that speakers confuse /s/ with /ʃ/ or /z/ with /dʒ/ or that they realize /ʒ/ as /dʒ/ or /z/.

6.1.3. Affricates

Even though affricate sounds do not undergo any changes in SIEP, in the movie, the voiceless postalveolar affricate /tʃ/ is produced as /ʃ/ as in the word *question* /'kwɛʃən/ (15).

6.1.4. Liquids

The data show that the voiceless postalveolar approximant /r/ does not happen in SIEP in the same way as in RP. It is pronounced not only in pre-vocalic position, but also medial and final position such as in *car* /kɑ:r/ (16), *herbal* /'hɜ:rbəl/ (14) and *brothers* /'brədərz/ (17). What is more, there is an instance where /r/ is not articulated when the following word begins with a vowel. The example is: *water in* /vɔ:tə m/ (12). There are also cases where a tap /ɾ/ is heard like in the word *America* /ə'mɛɪkə/ (10). Throughout the film, the alveolar lateral /l/ always appears as clear /l/.

6.1.5. Semivowels

Due to difficulties in distinguishing the voiced labiovelar approximant /w/ from the voiced labiodental fricative /v/ in SIEP, the speaker produces a frictionless labiodental approximant /ʋ/ instead. Some of the examples are the following: *water* /vɔ:tə/ (12), *want* /vɒnt/ (18) and *quiet* /'kvaɪt/ (3).

6.1.6. Nasals

Although nasal sounds remain the same in SIEP, there is an instance in the movie where /ŋ/ is uttered as /ŋg/ in final position in the word *morning* /m'ɔ:nɪŋg/ (5).

6.2. Vowel sounds

6.2.1. Short Vowels

The occurrence of short vowels /ʌ/ and /ə/ is variable. That is, words like *country* /kʌntri/ (15), *allow* /ʌləʊ/ (14) and *but* /bʌt/ (19) are pronounced with /ʌ/ while *brothers* /'brədərz/ (17) portrays the use of /ə/. It is worth mentioning that function words are not reduced in SIEP, even though they occur as weak forms in Standard English. For instance, *and* /ænd/ (24), *you* /jʊ/ (18), *that* /ðæt/ (13), *she* /ʃi:/ (25) and *to* /tʊ/ (25).

6.2.2. Long vowels

My Name is Khan clearly depicts the substitution of Standard English diphthongs /eɪ/, /əʊ/ with long vowels /e:/ and /o:/ as in *states* /ste:ts/ (4), *makes* /me:ks/ (12), *don't* /dɒ:nt/ (26), *only* /'o:nli/ (20), and many more. Besides, it is observed that the speaker tends to produce /ɒ:/ in place of /ɒ/. To give some illustrations, *shocking* as /'ʃɒ:kɪŋ/ (2), *wrong* as / rɒ:ŋ/ (15) and *wanting* as /'wɒ:ntɪŋ/ (15).

6.2.3. Diphthongs

The subject shows lengthening of British English diphthongs /ɪə/, /ʊə/, /eə / that appear as /i:/, /u:/, /e:/ in words such as *really* /'ri:li/ (21), *dairy* /'de:ri/ (22) and *bear* /be:r/ (23), to mention but a few.

7. CONCLUSION

The English language was introduced in India during the British colonial period. As Indians gave so much importance to the English language, it was kept as an associate language of the country even after gaining the independence from Britain. There is no doubt that both standard varieties, RP and SIEP, are very similar, however, they also show several differential features at the phonological level.

After having analysed the phonological features of the SIEP, it can be concluded that most of the RP and SIEP sounds show variation in pronunciation. That is, Standard British English aspirated sounds /p/, /t/, /k/ are unaspirated in SIEP. Moreover, Indian speakers tend to use retroflexed /ɖ/ for /t/ and /ɗ/ for /d/. In some non-standard varieties of Indian English /p^h/ is used instead of labiodental /f/. Regarding fricatives, /t̪/ and /d̪/ replace RP /θ/ and /ð/. The analysis also demonstrates that Indian speakers often replace /z/ with /s/ regardless the environment in which they occur. Even though Sailaja (2009) affirmed that in SIEP /r/ only occurs in prevocalic position, the study proves that it can be articulated in any position and also occasionally a tap /ɾ/ is produced. In addition, most of the Indian speakers use the labiodental approximant /ʋ/ in place of both /v/ and /w/. Evidence from the analysis also illustrates that speakers, though not always, tend to pronounce word final /ŋg/. Moreover, unlike RP, the short vowels /ʌ/ and /ə/ occur as free variants and function words do not appear as weak forms. RP diphthongs /eɪ/ and /əʊ/ are absent in SIEP, monophthongs /e:/ and /o:/ are used instead. Last but not the least, Standard British English diphthongs /ɪə/, /ʊə/, /eə/ occur as /i:/, /u:/, /e:/ in Indian English.

Nowadays, English is used for business, education, administration and law matters in India. It would not be wrong to say that the influence of the native Indian languages on English is what makes Indian English sound so different from British English (Sailaja 2009, p. 18), but further research needs to be carried out on the standard patterns of the regional varieties of Indian English to clarify their influence.

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APPENDIX I: Phonetic transcription

1. Okay. I have to take a bus to Washington DC now.

/oke |aɪ hæv tə te:k ə bʌs tə 'wɒʃɪŋtən di:si: naʊ/

2. Shocking pink.

/'ʃɒ:kɪŋ pɪŋk/

3. Keep quiet.

/ki:p 'kwaɪt/

4. I'm going to meet the president of the United States.

/aɪm go:ɪŋ tu mi:t ðə prezɪdənt əf ðə ju'naitɪd ste:ts/

5. Good morning.

/gʊd m'ɔ:nɪŋg/

6. We have nothing for the newly-divorced.

/vi hæv 'nʌtɪŋ fə ðə 'nju:li-di'vɔ:sd/

7. No, no, no. I have something to say to him.

/no, no, no | aɪ hæv 'sʌmtɪŋ tu se tu him/

8. We have nothing for the newly-divorced.

/vi hæv 'nʌtɪŋ fə ðə 'nju:li-di'vɔ:rsd/

9. I just wanna clarify one thing.

/aɪ dʒəs 'wɒnə 'klærɪfaɪ wʌn ɪŋ/

10. This is America.

/ðɪs ɪz ə'merɪkə/

11. Hindi: Honeymoon couple ne sab full kardiya hai. Translation: Rooms are full with honeymoon couples.

/phu:l/

12. The rose water in the clay mask cleans and clarifies your skin and makes you glow like a newly-wed bride.

/ðə ro:s vo:tə ɪndə kle: ma:sk kli:ns ən 'klærɪfaɪz jʊə skɪn ən me:ks jʊ glo laɪk ə 'nju:li wɛd braɪd/

13. It says that the product will reach you in seven days.

/ɪt se:s dæt ðə prɒdʌkt wɪl ri:tʃ jʊ ɪn 'sevn de:s/

14. Allow me to show you all the Mehnaz Herbal Beauty products, please.

/ʌlao mi: tʊ ʃo jʊ ɔ:l ðə mena:z 'hɜ:rbəl 'bju:ti prɒdʌkt, pli:s/

15. The question is what's wrong in an ordinary citizen wanting to meet the President of his country?

/ðə 'kwɛʃən ɪz wɒts rɒŋ ɪn ən 'o:dɪnəri 'sɪtɪzn 'wɒ:ntɪŋ tʊ mi:t ðə 'prezɪdənt əv hɪz 'kʌntri/

16. Hindi: 1873 me San Francisco me pehli cable car ayi thi. Translation: In 1873, the first cable car was used in San Francisco.

/'ke:bl kɑ:r/

17. Hindi: Begair koi sawal kiye brothers. Translation: Without asking any question, brothers.

/'brədərz/

18. You want to stay in the same room?

/jʊ wɒnt tʊ ste: ɪn ðə se:m ru:m?/

19. I'm sorry but I can't repair your knee.

/aɪm 'sɒri bʌt aɪ kʌnt rɪpe: jʊə ni:/

20. Khan stayed in room twenty-two only.

/xɑ:n ste:d ɪn ru:m 'tventi tu: 'o:nli/

21. Mandira- Really? /'ri:li?/

Rita- Yeah /jə:/

22. Hindi: jaha ke sare lok dairy farm me kam karte hai. Translation: Everybody works in the dairy farm.

/'de:ri fa:m/

23. Giraffe, whale, polar bear.

/dʒɪ'ra:f, weɪl, 'pɔ:lə beɪr/

24. And it was scary. Very scary.

/ænd ɪt wəz 'ske:ri | veri 'ske:ri/

25. She told me to go and meet the president.

/ʃi: to:ld mi tu go: æn mi:t ðə 'prezɪdənt/

26. I don't like yellow

/aɪ dɒ:nt laɪk jelo/